

# Quantum Loop Programs\*

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## Abstract

Loop is a powerful program construct in classical computation, but its power is still not exploited fully in quantum computation. The exploitation of such power definitely requires a deep understanding of the mechanism of quantum loop programs. In this paper, we introduce a general scheme of quantum loops and describe its computational process. The notions of termination and almost termination are proposed for quantum loops, and the function computed by a quantum loop is defined. To show their expressive power, quantum loops are applied in describing quantum walks. Necessary and sufficient conditions for termination and almost termination of a general quantum loop on any mixed input state are presented. A quantum loop is said to be (almost) terminating if it (almost) terminates on any input state. We show that a quantum loop is almost terminating if and only if it is uniformly almost terminating. It is observed that a small disturbance either on the unitary transformation in the loop body or on the measurement in the loop guard can make any quantum loop (almost) terminating. Moreover, a representation of the function computed by a quantum loop is given in terms of finite summations of matrices. To illustrate the notions and results obtained in this paper, two simplest classes of quantum loop programs, one qubit quantum loops, and two qubit quantum loops defined by controlled gates, are carefully examined.

## 1 Introduction

One of the most striking advances in quantum computing was made by Shor [26] in 1994. By exploring the power of quantum parallelism, he discovered a polynomial-time algorithm on quantum computers for prime factorization of which the best known algorithm on classical computers is exponential. In 1996, Grover [15] offered another apt killer of quantum computation, and he found a quantum algorithm for searching a single item in an unsorted database in square root of the time it would take on a classical computer. Since both prime factorization and database search are central problems in computer science and the quantum algorithms for them are highly faster than the classical ones, Shor and Grover's discoveries indicated that quantum computation offers a way to accomplish certain computational tasks much more efficiently than classical computation and thus stimulated an intensive investigation on quantum computation. After that, quantum computation has been an extremely exciting and rapidly growing field of research. In particular,

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a substantial effort has been made to find new quantum algorithms and to exploit the techniques needed in building functional quantum computers.

Currently, quantum algorithms are expressed mainly in the very low level of quantum circuits. In the history of classical computation, however, it was realized long time ago that programming languages provide a technique which allows us to think about a problem intended to solve in a high-level, conceptual way, rather than the details of implementation. Recently, in order to offer a similar technique in quantum computation, some authors begun to study the design and semantics of quantum programming languages. In the pool of imperative languages, the earliest proposal for quantum programming language was made by Knill in [18], where a set of basic principles for writing quantum pseudo-code was outlined and an imperative pseudo-code suitable for implementation on a quantum random access machine was defined. The first real quantum programming language, QCL, was proposed and a simulator for this language was implemented by Ömer [21, 22]. A quantum programming language in the style of Dijkstra’s guarded-command language, qGCL, is designed by Sanders and Zuliani in [23, 27, 28, 29]. A probabilistic predicate transformer semantics of qGCL was given, a refinement calculus for it was introduced, and a compiler from qGCL to a simple quantum architecture was defined. A quantum extension of C++ was also proposed by Bettelli et al [4], and it was implemented in the form of a C++ library. In the functional programming style, the first quantum language, QFC, was defined by Selinger [24] based on the idea of classical control and quantum data. Programs in the language QFC are represented via a functional version of flow charts, and QFC has a denotational semantics in terms of complete partial orders of super-operators. In addition, quantum process calculus CQP (Communicating Quantum Processes) was introduced by Gay and Nagarajan [13, 14], and QPAlg (Quantum Process Algebra) was proposed by Jorrand and Lalire [16, 19] in order to support the formal specification and verification of quantum cryptographic protocols. Also, Feng et al [11] defined a model qCCS of quantum processes, which is a natural quantum extension of classical value-passing CCS with the input and output of quantum states, and unitary transformations and measurements on quantum systems. Semantic techniques for quantum computation have also been investigated in some abstract, language-independent ways. For example, a notion of quantum weakest precondition is introduced and a Stone-type duality between the state transition semantics and the predicate transformer semantics for quantum programs is established by D’Hondt and Panangaden [8], and proof rules for probabilistic programs were generalized by Feng et al [10] to purely quantum programs. There are already two excellent surveys on quantum programming languages and related researches [25, 12]

Loop is a powerful program construct in classical computation [9]. In the area of quantum computation, looping technique has also attracted a few authors’ attention. For example, Bernstein and Vazirani [5, 6] introduced some programming primitives including looping in the context of quantum Turing machines; some high-level control features such as loop and recursion are provided in Selinger’s functional quantum programming language QFC. However, the full power of quantum loop programs is still to be exploited. The exploitation of such power definitely requires a deep understanding of the mechanism of quantum loops. The purpose of this paper is to examine thoroughly mechanism of quantum loops in a language-independent way, and to give some convenient criteria for deciding termination of a general quantum loop on a given input.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 is a preliminary section in which some basic notions from quantum mechanics needed in this paper are reviewed. In Section 3, a general scheme of quantum loop programs is introduced, the computational process of a quantum loop is described, and the essential difference between quantum loops and classical loops is analyzed. In addition, we introduce the notions of termination and almost termination of a quantum loop.

The function computed by a quantum loop is also defined. Quantum walks are considered to show the expressive power of quantum loops. In Section 4, we find a necessary and sufficient condition under which a quantum loop program terminates on a given mixed input state (Theorem 4.1). In Section 5, a similar condition is given for almost termination (Theorem 5.1). Furthermore, we prove that a quantum loop is almost terminating if and only if it is uniformly almost terminating (Theorem 5.2), and a small disturbance either on the unitary transformation in the loop body (Theorem 5.3) or on the measurement in the loop guard (Theorem 5.4) can make any quantum loop (almost) terminating. In Section 6, a representation of the function computed by a quantum loop is presented in terms of finite summations of complex matrices (Theorem 6.2). To illustrate the notions and results presented in the previous sections, Section 7 is devoted to some examples which observe the computational behavior of two simplest classes of quantum loops: one qubit loops, and two qubit loops defined by controlled operations. Section 8 is the concluding section in which we draw the conclusion and point out some problems for further studies.

## 2 Preliminaries

For convenience of the reader we briefly recall some basic notions from quantum theory and fix the notations needed in the sequel. We refer to [20] for more details.

An isolated physical system is associated with a Hilbert space which is called the state space of the system. We only need to consider finite dimensional Hilbert space in quantum computation. An  $n$ -dimensional Hilbert space is an  $n$ -dimensional complex vector space  $H$  together with an inner product which is a mapping  $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle : H \times H \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$  satisfying the following properties:

1.  $\langle \phi | \phi \rangle \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $|\phi\rangle = 0$ ;
2.  $\langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \phi \rangle^*$ ;
3.  $\langle \phi | \lambda_1 \psi_1 + \lambda_2 \psi_2 \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle \phi | \psi_1 \rangle + \lambda_2 \langle \phi | \psi_2 \rangle$ ,

where  $\mathbf{C}$  is the set of complex numbers, and  $\lambda^*$  stands for the conjugate of  $\lambda$  for each complex number  $\lambda \in \mathbf{C}$ . For any vector  $|\psi\rangle$  in  $H$ , its length  $|||\psi\rangle||$  is defined to be  $\sqrt{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$ . Let  $V$  be a set of vectors in a Hilbert space  $H$ . Then  $span(V)$  is defined to be the subspace of  $H$  spanned by  $V$ , that is, it consists of all linear combinations of vectors in  $V$ . An orthonormal basis of a Hilbert

space  $H$  is a basis  $\{|i\rangle\}$  with  $\langle i | j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$  Then the trace of a linear operator  $A$  on  $H$

is defined to be  $tr(A) = \sum_i \langle i | A | i \rangle$ .

A pure state of a quantum system is a unit vector in its state space, that is, a vector  $|\psi\rangle$  with  $|||\psi\rangle|| = 1$ , and a mixed state is represented by a density operator. A density operator in a Hilbert space  $H$  is a linear operator  $\rho$  on it fulfilling the following conditions:

1.  $\rho$  is positive in the sense that  $\langle \psi | \rho | \psi \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $|\psi\rangle$ ;
2.  $tr(\rho) = 1$ .

An equivalent concept of density operator is ensemble of pure states. An ensemble is a set of the form  $\{(p_i, |\psi_i\rangle)\}$  such that  $p_i \geq 0$  and  $|\psi_i\rangle$  is a pure state for each  $i$ , and  $\sum_i p_i = 1$ . Then  $\rho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  is a density operator, and conversely each density operator can be generated by an ensemble of pure states in this way. The set of density operators on  $H$  is denoted  $\mathcal{D}(H)$ . A positive operator  $A$  is called a partial density operator if  $tr(A) \leq 1$ . We write  $\mathcal{D}^-(H)$  for the set of partial density operators on  $H$ . Obviously,  $\mathcal{D}(H) \subseteq \mathcal{D}^-(H)$ .

The evolution of a closed quantum system is described by a unitary operator on its state space. A linear operator  $U$  on a Hilbert space  $H$  is said to be unitary if  $U^\dagger U = I_H$ , where  $I_H$  is the identity operator on  $H$ , and  $U^\dagger$  is the adjoint of  $U$ . If the states of the system at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ , respectively, then  $\rho_2 = U\rho_1 U^\dagger$  for some unitary operator  $U$  which depends only on  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . In particular, if  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are pure states  $|\psi_1\rangle$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle$ , respectively, that is,  $\rho_1 = |\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_1|$  and  $\rho_2 = |\psi_2\rangle\langle\psi_2|$ , then we have  $|\psi_2\rangle = U|\psi_1\rangle$ .

A quantum measurement is described by a collection  $\{M_m\}$  of measurement operators, where the indexes  $m$  refer to the measurement outcomes. It is required that the measurement operators satisfy the completeness equation  $\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = I_H$ . If the system is in state  $\rho$ , then the probability that measurement result  $m$  occurs is given by  $p(m) = \text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M_m \rho)$ , and the state of the system after the measurement is  $\frac{M_m \rho M_m^\dagger}{p(m)}$ . For the case that  $\rho$  is a pure state  $|\psi\rangle$ , that is,  $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ , we have  $p(m) = \|M_m|\psi\rangle\|^2$ , and the post-measurement state is  $\frac{M_m|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}$ . In particular, a projective measurement is described by an observable which is represented by a Hermitian operator. A Hermitian operator is a linear operator  $M$  with  $M^\dagger = M$ . An eigenvector of a linear operator  $A$  is a nonzero vector  $|\lambda\rangle$  such that  $A|\lambda\rangle = \lambda|\lambda\rangle$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbf{C}$ , where  $\lambda$  is called the eigenvalue of  $A$  corresponding to  $|\lambda\rangle$ . We write  $\text{spec}(A)$  for the set of eigenvalues of  $A$  which is called the spectrum of  $A$ . It is well known that all eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator  $M$  are reals. Let  $M = \sum_{m \in \text{spec}(M)} m P_m$  be the spectral decomposition of  $M$  where for each  $m \in \text{spec}(M)$ ,  $P_m$  is the projector to its corresponding eigenspace. Obviously, these projectors form a quantum measurement  $\{P_m : m \in \text{spec}(M)\}$ . If the state of a quantum system is  $\rho$ , then the probability that result  $m$  occurs when measuring  $M$  on the system is  $p(m) = \text{tr}(P_m \rho)$ , and the post-measurement state of the system is  $\frac{P_m \rho P_m}{p(m)}$ .

The state space of a composite system is the tensor product of the state spaces of its components. Let  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  be two Hilbert spaces. Then their tensor product  $H_1 \otimes H_2$  consists of linear combinations of vectors  $|\psi_1 \psi_2\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle$  with  $|\psi_1\rangle \in H_1$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle \in H_2$ . For any linear operator  $A_1$  on  $H_1$  and  $A_2$  on  $H_2$ ,  $A_1 \otimes A_2$  is an operator on  $H_1 \otimes H_2$  and it is defined by

$$(A_1 \otimes A_2)|\psi_1 \psi_2\rangle = A_1|\psi_1\rangle \otimes A_2|\psi_2\rangle$$

for each  $|\psi_1\rangle \in H_1$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle \in H_2$ . Since density operators are special linear operators, their tensor product is then well-defined. If component system  $i$  is in state  $\rho_i$  for each  $i$ , then the state of the composite system is  $\bigotimes_i \rho_i$ .

### 3 Basic Definitions

We first give a general and formal formulation of quantum loop programs. Suppose that we have  $n$  quantum registers  $q_1, \dots, q_n$ , and their state spaces are  $H_1, \dots, H_n$ , respectively. We further assume that  $U$  is a unitary operator on the tensor product space  $H = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n H_i$ . Let  $M = \sum_m m P_m$  be a projective measurement on  $H$ . Then for any  $X \subseteq \text{spec}(M)$ , the quantum loop program defined by  $U$ ,  $M$  and  $X$  may be written as follows:

$$\text{while } (M \in X) \{ \bar{q} := U\bar{q} \} \quad (1)$$

where  $\bar{q}$  is used to denote the sequence  $q_1, \dots, q_n$  of quantum registers. Let  $P_X = \sum_{m \in X} P_m$  and  $P_{\bar{X}} = I_H - P_X = \sum_{m \in \text{spec}(M) - X} P_m$ , where  $I_H$  is the unit operator on  $H$ . Then the guard “ $M \in X$ ” of loop (1) means that the projective measurement  $\{P_X, P_{\bar{X}}\}$  is applied to  $\bar{q}$ , and the outcome corresponding to  $P_X$  is observed. The body of the loop is the assignment “ $\bar{q} := U\bar{q}$ ”, that

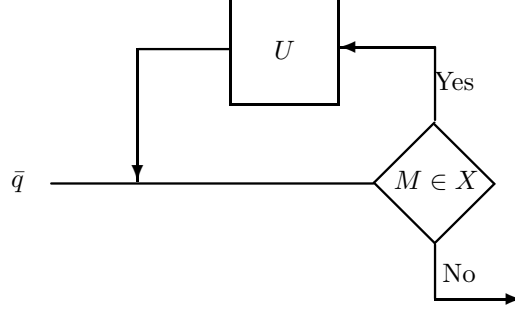


Figure 1: Quantum loop (1)

is, a command of performing unitary transformation  $U$  on the state of the sequence  $\bar{q}$  of quantum registers. This loop can be visualized by Fig.1.

It is worth noting that the projective measurement we perform to check the guard condition of loop (1) is  $\{P_X, P_{\bar{X}}\}$  rather than  $M$  itself, because we need only tell whether or not the measurement outcome belongs to  $X$ . Any further information about the exact outcome is useless, and will bring unnecessary disturbance to the system we measured.

We now examine the computational process of the above loop program. For any input state  $\rho_0 = \rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ , the behavior of the above quantum loop can be described in the following unwound way (see Fig.2):

1. This is the initial step. The loop program performs the projective measurement  $\{P_X, P_{\bar{X}}\}$  on the input state  $\rho$ . If the outcome corresponding to  $P_X$  is observed, then the program performs the given unitary operation  $U$  on the post-measurement state. Otherwise the program terminates. Formally, the loop will terminate with probability  $p_T^{(1)}(\rho) = \text{tr}(P_{\bar{X}}\rho)$  and it will continue with probability  $p_{NT}^{(1)}(\rho) = 1 - p_T^{(1)}(\rho) = \text{tr}(P_X\rho)$ . In the case of termination, the output of the loop is

$$\rho_{out}^{(1)} = \frac{P_{\bar{X}}\rho P_{\bar{X}}}{p_T^{(1)}(\rho)},$$

and in the case of nontermination, the state of  $\bar{q}$  system after the measurement is

$$\rho_{mid}^{(1)} = \frac{P_X\rho P_X}{p_{NT}^{(1)}(\rho)}.$$

Furthermore,  $\rho_{mid}^{(1)}$  will be fed to the unitary operation  $U$  and then the state  $\rho_{in}^{(1)} = U\rho_{mid}^{(1)}U^\dagger$  is returned, which will be used as the input state in the next step.

2. This is the induction step. Suppose that the loop has performed  $n$  steps, and it did not terminate at the  $n$ th step, that is,  $p_{NT}^{(n)} > 0$ . If  $\rho_{in}^{(n)}$  is the state of  $\bar{q}$  system returned at the  $n$ th step, then in the  $(n+1)$ th step, the termination probability is  $p_T^{(n+1)}(\rho) = \text{tr}(P_{\bar{X}}\rho_{in}^{(n)})$  and the output is

$$\rho_{out}^{(n+1)} = \frac{P_{\bar{X}}\rho_{in}^{(n)} P_{\bar{X}}}{p_T^{(n+1)}(\rho)}.$$

The loop continues to perform the unitary operation  $U$  on the post-measurement state

$$\rho_{mid}^{(n+1)} = \frac{P_X\rho_{in}^{(n)} P_X}{p_{NT}^{(n+1)}(\rho)}$$

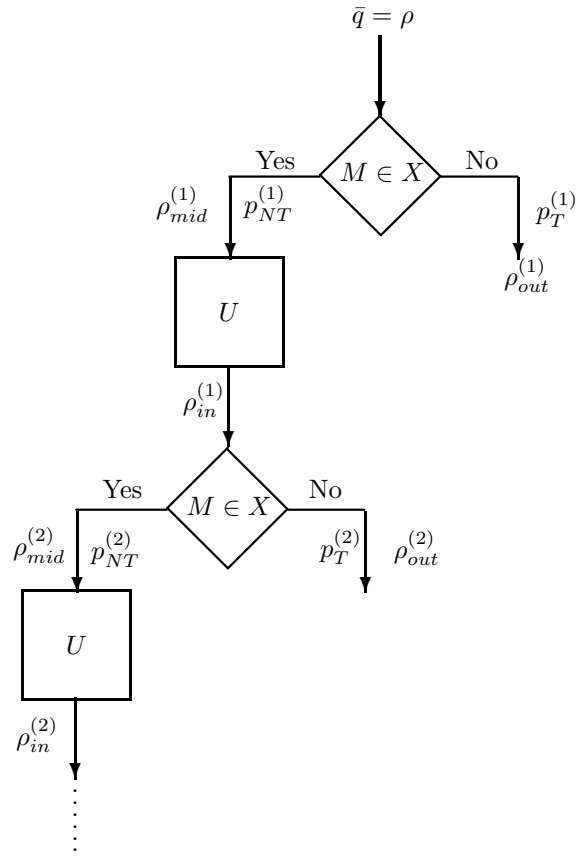


Figure 2: The computational process of loop (1)

with probability  $p_{NT}^{(n+1)}(\rho) = 1 - p_T^{(n+1)}(\rho) = \text{tr}(P_X \rho_{in}^{(n)})$ , and the state  $\rho_{in}^{(n+1)} = U \rho_{mid}^{(n+1)} U^\dagger$  will be returned.

Note that not only a pure quantum state but also a mixed state is allowed to feed into a quantum loop. In fact, quantum programming with mixed states has already been considered in the previous literature; for example, see [24, 29].

There is an essential difference between the computing process of quantum loops and that of classical loops. In a classical loop the states of variables do not change during verification of the loop condition. However, in a quantum loop it is impossible to check the loop condition directly. Instead, the loop program needs to extract information about the registers  $q_1, \dots, q_n$  by performing a measurement  $M$  and thus their states will be changed.

To demonstrate the expressive power of quantum loops, let us consider an interesting example. Quantum walk is a natural quantum extension of classical random walk, which in turn has proved to be a fundamental tool in computer science, especially in the designing of algorithms [17]. In this example, we consider a discrete coined quantum walk on an  $n$ -cycle with an absorbing boundary at position 1, and express this kind of quantum walk in our language of quantum loops. For more details about quantum walk on a cycle, or more generally, on any graph, we refer to [1]. The following example shows that a quantum walk can be described very well in the language of quantum loops.

**Example 3.1** *Let  $H_A$  be a 2-dimensional ‘coin’ space with orthonormal basis states  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ , and  $H_V$  be the  $n$ -dimensional principle space spanned by the position vectors  $|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, n-1$ . Then each step of the quantum walk we are concerned with consists of three sub-steps:*

1. A ‘coin-tossing operator’  $H = |+\rangle\langle 0| + |-\rangle\langle 1|$  is applied to the coin space, where  $|+\rangle = (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  and  $|-\rangle = (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ .
2. A shift operator

$$S = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |i \ominus 1\rangle\langle i| \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0| + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |i \oplus 1\rangle\langle i| \otimes |1\rangle\langle 1|$$

*is performed on the space  $H_V \otimes H_A$ , which makes the quantum walk one step left or right according to the coin state. Here  $\ominus$  and  $\oplus$  denote subtraction and addition modulo  $n$ , respectively.*

3. Measure the principle system to see if the current position of the walk is 1. If the answer is ‘yes’ then terminate the walk, otherwise the walk continues.

Formally, we can formulate the walk described above by a quantum loop:

$$\mathbf{while} (M \neq 1) \{ \bar{q} := U \bar{q} \} \quad (2)$$

where  $M = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |i\rangle\langle i| \otimes I_2$ ,  $U = S(I_n \otimes H)$ , and  $\bar{q}$  is a quantum register in  $H_V \otimes H_A$ . For simplicity, we write  $M \neq 1$  in the loop guard to denote  $M \in X$  for  $X = \{0, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ .

One of the most important problems concerning the behavior of a loop program is its termination.

**Definition 3.1** 1. If  $p_{NT}^{(n)}(\rho) = 0$  for some positive integer  $n$ , then it is said that the loop with input  $\rho$  terminates.

2. The nonterminating probability of the loop with input  $\rho$  is defined to be

$$p_{NT}(\rho) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho)$$

where (and in the sequel)  $p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_{NT}^{(i)}(\rho)$  denotes the probability that the loop does not terminate after  $n$  steps.

3. We say that the loop with input  $\rho$  almost terminate whenever  $p_{NT}(\rho) = 0$ .

4. If  $p_{NT}(\rho) > 0$ , then we say that the loop with input  $\rho$  does not terminate.

Intuitively, a quantum loop almost terminates if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a big enough positive integer  $n(\epsilon)$  such that the probability that the loop terminates at the  $n(\epsilon)$ th step is greater than  $1 - \epsilon$ . Obviously, if a quantum loop terminates on a given input state, then it also almost terminates on the same input.

A classical loop may terminate or not, but a quantum loop has an additional possibility of almost termination. Clearly, this is caused by the probabilistic nature of quantum mechanics.

**Definition 3.2** 1. A quantum loop program is said to be terminating (resp. almost terminating) if it terminates (resp. almost terminates) with all input  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ .

2. A quantum loop is uniformly almost terminating if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a positive integer  $n(\epsilon)$  such that  $p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) < \epsilon$  holds for all input  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$  whenever  $n \geq n(\epsilon)$ .

It is clear that uniformly almost terminating quantum loops are almost terminating.

Note that the case of  $X = \emptyset$  or  $\text{spec}(M)$  is trivial. In fact, the loop (1) is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{while} \ (false) \ \{\bar{q} := U\bar{q}\}$$

when  $X = \emptyset$ , and it is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{while} \ (true) \ \{\bar{q} := U\bar{q}\}$$

when  $X = \text{spec}(M)$ . The former terminates immediately and does nothing, and the latter will loop forever. In what follows we always assume that  $\emptyset \subset X \subset \text{spec}(M)$ .

In the computational process of a loop program, a density operator is input, and a density operator is outputted with a certain probability at each step. Thus, we have to synthesize these density operators returned at all steps according to the respective probabilities into a single one as the overall output. Note that sometimes the loop does not terminate with a nonzero probability. The synthesized output may not be a density operator but only a partial density operator. Then a loop defines a function from density operators to partial density operators on  $H$ .

**Definition 3.3** The loop (1) defines a function  $F : \mathcal{D}(H) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^-(H)$  in the following way:

$$F(\rho) = \rho_{out} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{NT}^{(n-1)+}(\rho) p_T^{(n)}(\rho) \rho_{out}^{(n)}$$

for each  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ . The function  $F$  is called the function computed by the loop (1).



It should be noted that in the defining equation of  $F(\rho)$  the quantity  $p_{NT}^{(n-1)+}(\rho)p_T^{(n)}(\rho)$  is the probability that the loop does not terminate at steps from 1 to  $n-1$  but it terminates at the  $n$ th step.

For the case that  $\rho$  is a pure state, that is,  $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  for some pure state  $|\psi\rangle$ , we will write  $F(|\psi\rangle)$  in place of  $F(\rho)$  for simplicity.

In the remainder of this section, we are going to present some basic properties of quantum loops. For any operator  $A$  on  $H$ , we write  $A_X = P_X A P_X$ , that is,  $A_X$  is the restriction of  $A$  on the subspace of  $H$  corresponding to the projector  $P_X$ . First, the computational process of quantum loop (1) can be summarized as:

**Lemma 3.1** *Let  $\rho$  be the input state to the loop (1). Then for any positive integer  $n$ , we have:*

$$p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = \text{tr}(U_X^{n-1} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-1}) \quad (3)$$

and

$$F(\rho) = P_{\overline{X}} \rho P_{\overline{X}} + P_{\overline{X}} U \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_X^n \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n} \right) U^\dagger P_{\overline{X}}. \quad (4)$$

*Proof.* First, it is easy to check by induction on  $n$  that

$$p_{NT}^{(n)}(\rho) = \begin{cases} \frac{\text{tr}(U_X^{n-1} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-1})}{\text{tr}(U_X^{n-2} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-2})}, & \text{if } n \geq 2, \\ \text{tr}(\rho_X), & \text{if } n = 1, \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

$$p_T^{(n)}(\rho) = \begin{cases} \frac{\text{tr}(P_{\overline{X}} U U_X^{n-2} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-2} U^\dagger)}{\text{tr}(U_X^{n-2} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-2})}, & \text{if } n \geq 2, \\ 1 - \text{tr}(\rho_X), & \text{if } n = 1, \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

and

$$\rho_{out}^{(n)} = \frac{P_{\overline{X}} U U_X^{n-2} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-2} U^\dagger P_{\overline{X}}}{\text{tr}(P_{\overline{X}} U U_X^{n-2} \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n-2} U^\dagger)}. \quad (7)$$

Then Eq. (3) follows from Eq. (5), and Eq. (4) comes from Eqs. (3), (6), and (7).  $\square$

It should be pointed out here that convergence of the infinite series in Definition 3.3 and Eq. (4) is guaranteed by the facts that the set  $\mathcal{D}^-(H)$  is a directed complete poset under the Löwner order and the sequence  $\left\{ \sum_{n=0}^k U_X^n \rho_X U_X^{\dagger n} \right\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is non-decreasing in this order. For the details, we refer to [24]. On the other hand, from Eq. (4) and Kraus representation theorem ([20], Theorem 8.1) we notice that the function  $F$  computed by loop (1) is a super-operator (also called quantum operation).

Let  $H_X$  be the subspace of  $H$  with projector  $P_X$ , and  $H_{\overline{X}}$  the subspace with projector  $P_{\overline{X}}$ . The following proposition clarifies the range of the function  $F$  computed by the loop (1).

**Proposition 3.1** *For each  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ , we have:*

1.  $\langle \phi | F(\rho) | \psi \rangle = 0$  if  $|\phi\rangle$  or  $|\psi\rangle \in H_X$ ;

$$J_r(\lambda)^N = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} & \binom{N}{2} \lambda^{N-2} & \dots & \binom{N}{r-2} \lambda^{N-r+2} & \binom{N}{r-1} \lambda^{N-r+1} \\ 0 & \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} & \dots & \binom{N}{r-3} \lambda^{N-r+3} & \binom{N}{r-2} \lambda^{N-r+2} \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda^N & \dots & \binom{N}{r-4} \lambda^{N-r+4} & \binom{N}{r-3} \lambda^{N-r+3} \\ & & & \dots & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda^N \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$


---

$$J_r(\lambda)^N \mathbf{v} = \left( \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{N}{i} \lambda^{N-i} v_{i+1}, \sum_{i=0}^{r-2} \binom{N}{i} \lambda^{N-i} v_{i+2}, \dots, \lambda^N v_{r-1} + \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} v_r, \lambda^N v_r \right)^T. \quad (9)$$


---

2.  $\text{tr}(F(\rho)) = 1 - p_{NT}(\rho)$ . Thus,  $F(\rho) \in \mathcal{D}(H)$  if and only if the loop (1) with input state  $\rho$  almost terminates.

*Proof.* 1. By definition we know that  $P_{\overline{X}}|\phi\rangle = P_{\overline{X}}|\psi\rangle = 0$ . Then it follows immediately from Lemma 3.1.

2. By induction on  $k$  it may be shown that

$$\sum_{n=1}^k p_{NT}^{(n-1)+}(\rho) p_T^{(n)}(\rho) = 1 - p_{NT}^{k+}(\rho).$$

Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(F(\rho)) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{NT}^{(n-1)+}(\rho) p_T^{(n)}(\rho) \\ &= 1 - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = 1 - p_{NT}(\rho). \end{aligned}$$

The conclusion follows immediately.  $\square$

From Proposition 3.1.1 we see that  $F$  is indeed a function from  $\mathcal{D}(H)$  into  $\mathcal{D}^-(H_{\overline{X}})$ .

## 4 Termination

The aim of this section is to give a necessary and sufficient condition under which the loop (1) terminates on a given input state.

We first give a lemma which allows us to decompose an input density matrix into a sequence of simpler input density matrices when examining termination of a quantum loop.

**Lemma 4.1** *Let  $\rho = \sum_i p_i \rho_i$  where  $p_i > 0$  and  $\rho_i \in \mathcal{D}(H)$  for each  $i$ , and  $\sum_i p_i = 1$ . Then the loop (1) with input  $\rho$  terminates if and only if it terminates with input  $\rho_i$  for all  $i$ .*

*Proof.* For each  $i$ , if the loop (1) with input  $\rho_i$  terminates, then there exists a positive integer  $n_i$  such that  $p_{NT}^{n_i+}(\rho_i) = 0$ . Let  $n_0 = \max_i n_i$ . Then  $p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho_i) = 0$  for all  $i$ , and this yields

$$p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho) = \sum_i p_i p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho_i) = 0.$$

Conversely, if the loop (1) with input  $\rho$  terminates, then there exists a positive integer  $n_0$  such that  $p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho) = 0$ . This implies that for each  $i$ ,  $p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho_i) = 0$  because  $p_{NT}^{n_0+}(\rho_i) \geq 0$  for each  $i$ .  $\square$

If  $\{(p_i, |\psi_i\rangle)\}$  is an ensemble with  $p_i > 0$  for all  $i$ , and  $\rho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ , then the above lemma asserts that the loop (1) terminates on input mixed state  $\rho$  if and only if it terminates on input pure state  $|\psi_i\rangle$  for all  $i$ . In particular, we have:

**Corollary 4.1** *A quantum loop is terminating if and only if it terminates with all pure input states.*

Second, the termination problem of a quantum loop may be reduced to a corresponding problem of a classical loop in the field of complex numbers. Let  $|m_1\rangle, |m_2\rangle, \dots, |m_K\rangle$  be an orthonormal basis of  $H$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k |m_i\rangle\langle m_i| = P_X, \quad \sum_{i=k+1}^K |m_i\rangle\langle m_i| = P_{\overline{X}},$$

where  $1 \leq k \leq K$ . Without any loss of generality, we assume in the sequel that the matrix representations of  $U, U_X, \rho_X$  (denoted also by  $U, U_X, \rho_X$  respectively for simplicity) are taken according to this basis. In particular, for each pure state  $|\psi\rangle$  we write  $|\psi\rangle_X$  for the vector representation of  $P_X|\psi\rangle$  under this basis.

**Lemma 4.2** *The quantum loop (1) terminates with input  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$  if and only if  $U_X^N \rho_X U_X^{\dagger N} = \mathbf{0}_{k \times k}$  for some nonnegative integer  $N$ , where  $\mathbf{0}_{k \times k}$  is the  $(k \times k)$ -zero matrix. In particular, it terminates with pure input state  $|\psi\rangle$  if and only if  $U_X^N |\psi\rangle_X = \mathbf{0}$  for some nonnegative integer  $N$ , where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the zero vector of length  $k$ .*

*Proof.* This result follows from Eq. (3) and the fact that  $\text{tr}(A) = \mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $A = \mathbf{0}$  when  $A$  is positive semi-definite.  $\square$

Third, we show certain invariance of termination of a classical loop under a nonsingular transformation.

**Lemma 4.3** *Let  $S$  be a nonsingular  $(k \times k)$ -complex matrix. Then the (classical) loop:*

$$\text{while } (\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}) \{ \mathbf{v} := U_X \mathbf{v} \} \quad (\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{C}^k)$$

*terminates on input  $\mathbf{v}_0 \in \mathbf{C}^k$  if and only if the following loop:*

$$\text{while } (\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}) \{ \mathbf{v} := (S U_X S^{-1}) \mathbf{v} \} \quad (\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{C}^k)$$

*terminates on input  $S \mathbf{v}_0$ .*

*Proof.* Note that  $S \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$  because  $S$  is nonsingular. Then the conclusion follows from a simple calculation.  $\square$

Furthermore, we shall need the famous Jordan normal form theorem in the proof of the main result in this section.

**Lemma 4.4** (Jordan normal form; [7]) For any  $(k \times k)$ -complex matrix  $A$ , there is a nonsingular  $(k \times k)$ -complex matrix  $S$  such that  $A = SJ(A)S^{-1}$ , where

$$J(A) = \text{diag}(J_{k_1}(\lambda_1), J_{k_2}(\lambda_2), \dots, J_{k_l}(\lambda_l))$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} J_{k_1}(\lambda_1) & & & & \\ & J_{k_2}(\lambda_2) & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & J_{k_l}(\lambda_l) \end{pmatrix}$$

is the Jordan normal form of  $A$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^l k_i = k$ , and

$$J_{k_i}(\lambda_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & & \\ & \lambda_i & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & \lambda_i \end{pmatrix}. \quad (10)$$

is a  $(k_i \times k_i)$ -Jordan block for each  $1 \leq i \leq l$ . Furthermore, if the Jordan blocks corresponding to each distinct eigenvalue are presented in decreasing order of the block size, then the Jordan normal form is uniquely determined once the ordering of the eigenvalues is given.

The following technical lemma is also needed.

**Lemma 4.5** Let  $J_r(\lambda)$  be a  $(r \times r)$ -Jordan block, and  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{C}^r$ . Then  $J_r(\lambda)^N \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  for some nonnegative integer  $N$  if and only if  $\lambda = 0$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the zero vector of length  $r$ .

*Proof.* The “if” part is clear. We now prove the “only if” part. By a routine calculation we obtain the matrix  $J_r(\lambda)^N$  as in Eq. (8). Notice that  $J_r(\lambda)^N$  is an upper triangular matrix with the diagonal entries being  $\lambda^N$ . So if  $\lambda \neq 0$  then  $J_r(\lambda)^N$  is nonsingular, and then  $J_r(\lambda)^N \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  implies  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .  $\square$

Now we are able to present the main result of this section.

**Theorem 4.1** Suppose the Jordan decomposition of  $U_X$  is  $U_X = SJ(U_X)S^{-1}$ , where

$$J(U_X) = \text{diag}(J_{k_1}(\lambda_1), J_{k_2}(\lambda_2), \dots, J_{k_l}(\lambda_l)).$$

Let  $S^{-1}|\psi\rangle_X$  be divided into  $l$  sub-vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l$  such that the length of  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is  $k_i$ . Then the loop (1) terminates on input  $|\psi\rangle$  if and only if for each  $1 \leq i \leq l$ ,  $\lambda_i = 0$  or  $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$ , where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the zero vector of length  $k_i$ .

*Proof.* Using Lemmas 4.2 and 4.3 we know that the loop (1) terminates on input  $|\psi\rangle$  if and only if  $J(U_X)^N S^{-1}|\psi\rangle_X = \mathbf{0}$  for some nonnegative integer  $N$ . A simple calculation yields

$$J(U_X)^N S^{-1}|\psi\rangle_X$$

$$= ((J_{k_1}(\lambda_1)^N \mathbf{v}_1)^T, (J_{k_2}(\lambda_2)^N \mathbf{v}_2)^T, \dots, (J_{k_m}(\lambda_m)^N \mathbf{v}_m)^T)^T.$$

Therefore,  $J(U_X)^N S^{-1}|\psi\rangle_X = \mathbf{0}$  for some nonnegative integer  $N$  if and only if for each  $1 \leq i \leq l$ , there exists a nonnegative integer  $N_i$  such that  $J_{k_i}(\lambda_i)^{N_i} \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$ . Then we complete the proof by using Lemma 4.5.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.2** *Loop (1) is terminating if and only if  $U_X$  has only zero eigenvalues.*

Theorem 4.1 gives a necessary and sufficient condition for termination of loop (1) on an input pure state. Obviously, we can decide whether the loop (1) terminates on any given mixed state as input by combining Lemma 4.1 and Theorem 4.1. The condition for termination of loop (1) can be considerably simplified in the special case when  $U_X$  is normal, that is,  $U_X U_X^\dagger = U_X^\dagger U_X$ . In this case,  $U_X$  has the following simple spectrum decomposition:

$$U_X = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i |i\rangle \langle i|. \quad (11)$$

Then from Eq. (3) we have for any  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ :

$$p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = \text{tr} \left( \sum_{i,j=1}^k \lambda_i^{n-1} |i\rangle \langle i| \rho |j\rangle \langle j| \lambda_j^{*n-1} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k |\lambda_i|^{2(n-1)} \langle i | \rho | i \rangle. \quad (13)$$

This implies immediately the following:

**Corollary 4.3** *Suppose  $U_X$  is normal and its spectrum decomposition is given by Eq. (11). Then we have:*

1. *loop (1) terminates on input state  $\rho$  if and only if for any  $i = 1, \dots, k$ ,  $\lambda_i \neq 0$  implies  $\langle i | \rho | i \rangle = 0$ , or equivalently,  $\text{tr}(U_X \rho) = 0$ .*
2. *loop (1) is terminating if and only if  $U_X = 0$ .*

## 5 Almost termination

In this section we are going to present a necessary and sufficient condition under which the loop (1) almost terminates on any given input state. We first give a lemma similar to Lemma 4.1 so that a mixed input state can be reduced to a family of pure input states.

**Lemma 5.1** *Let  $\rho = \sum_i p_i \rho_i$  where  $p_i > 0$  and  $\rho_i \in \mathcal{D}(H)$  for each  $i$ , and  $\sum_i p_i = 1$ . Then the loop (1) with input  $\rho$  almost terminates if and only if it almost terminates with input  $\rho_i$  for all  $i$ .*

*Proof.* Notice that  $p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = \sum_i p_i p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho_i)$  from Eq. (3). The result follows by taking limits about  $n$  in both sides of the above equation.  $\square$

**Corollary 5.1** *A quantum loop is almost terminating if and only if it almost terminates on all pure input states.*

The following lemma is a key step in the proof of our main result in this section.

**Lemma 5.2** *The loop (1) almost terminates on the pure input state  $|\psi\rangle$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|U_X^n |\psi\rangle\| = 0$ .*

*Proof.* From Eq. (3) we have  $p_{NT}^n(|\psi\rangle) = \|U_X^{n-1}|\psi\rangle\|^2$ . So  $p_{NT}(|\psi\rangle) = 0$  if and only  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|U_X^n|\psi\rangle\| = 0$ .  $\square$

The following theorem gives a necessary and sufficient condition for almost termination of a quantum loop on a pure input state.

**Theorem 5.1** *Suppose that  $U_X$ ,  $S$ ,  $J(U_X)$ ,  $J_{k_i}(\lambda_i)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq l$ ) are given as in Theorem 4.1. Then the loop (1) almost terminates on input  $|\psi\rangle$  if and only if for each  $1 \leq i \leq l$ ,  $|\lambda_i| < 1$  or  $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$ , where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the zero vector of length  $k_i$ .*

*Proof.* First, for any nonnegative integer  $n$ , we have  $U_X^n|\psi\rangle = SJ(U_X)^nS^{-1}|\psi\rangle$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|U_X^n|\psi\rangle\| = 0$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|J(U_X)^nS^{-1}|\psi\rangle\| = 0 \quad (14)$$

since  $S$  is nonsingular. Using Lemma 5.2 we know that the loop (1) almost terminates if and only if Eq. (14) holds. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & J(U_X)^nS^{-1}|\psi\rangle \\ &= ((J_{k_1}(\lambda_1)^n\mathbf{v}_1)^T, (J_{k_2}(\lambda_2)^n\mathbf{v}_2)^T, \dots, (J_{k_l}(\lambda_l)^n\mathbf{v}_l)^T)^T. \end{aligned}$$

Then Eq. (14) holds if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|J_{k_i}(\lambda_i)\mathbf{v}_i\| = 0 \quad (15)$$

for all  $1 \leq i \leq l$ . Furthermore, for each  $1 \leq i \leq l$ , from Eq. (9) we see that Eq. (15) holds if and only if the following  $k_i$  equations are valid:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{k_i-1} \binom{n}{j} \lambda_i^{n-j} v_{i(j+1)} = 0, \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{k_i-2} \binom{n}{j} \lambda_i^{n-j} v_{i(j+2)} = 0, \\ \dots\dots\dots \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\lambda_i^n v_{i(k-1)} + \binom{n}{1} \lambda_i^{n-1} v_{ik}] = 0, \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_i^n v_{ik} = 0, \end{array} \right. \quad (16)$$

where it is assumed that  $\mathbf{v}_i = (v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{ik_i})$ .

If  $|\lambda_i| < 1$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \binom{n}{j} \lambda_i^{n-j} = 0$  for any  $0 \leq j \leq k_i - 1$ , and all of the above equations in Eq. (16) follow. On the other hand, if  $|\lambda_i| \geq 1$ , then from the last equation in Eq. (16) we know that  $v_{ik} = 0$ . Putting  $v_{ik} = 0$  into the second equation from bottom in Eq. (16) we obtain  $v_{i(k-1)} = 0$ . We can further move from bottom to top in Eq (16) in this way, and finally we get  $v_{i1} = v_{i2} = \dots = v_{i(k-1)} = v_{ik} = 0$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 5.2** *Loop (1) is almost terminating if and only if all the eigenvalues of  $U_X$  have norms less than 1.*

In the case when  $U_X$  is normal, we have the following corollary which is also easy to prove directly from Eq. (13).

**Corollary 5.3** Suppose  $U_X$  is normal and Eq. (11) is its spectrum decomposition. Then

1. loop (1) with input  $\rho$  almost terminates if and only if for any  $i = 1, \dots, k$ ,  $|\lambda_i| = 1$  implies  $\langle i|\rho|i\rangle = 0$ , i.e., the set

$$I' \equiv \{ 1 \leq i \leq k \mid |\lambda_i| = 1 \text{ and } \langle i|\rho|i\rangle > 0 \}$$

is empty.

2. The nonterminating probability is  $p_{NT}(\rho) = \sum_{i \in I'} \langle i|\rho|i\rangle$ .

Now we are able to show that the quantum walk (2) in Example 3.1 is almost terminating. It is direct to calculate that  $P_X = \sum_{i \neq 1} |i\rangle\langle i| \otimes I_2$  and

$$U_X = \sum_{i \neq 0,1} (|i\rangle\langle i \oplus 1| \otimes |0\rangle\langle +| + |i \oplus 1\rangle\langle i| \otimes |0\rangle\langle -|).$$

With Corollary 5.2 it suffices to prove that each eigenvector of  $U_X$  has its norm strictly less than 1. By contradiction, suppose  $U_X$  has an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  with unit norm, and one of the corresponding normalized eigenvector is

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (\alpha_i |i\rangle \otimes |+\rangle + \beta_i |i\rangle \otimes |-\rangle), \quad (17)$$

where  $\sum_i (|\alpha_i|^2 + |\beta_i|^2) = 1$ . Then we have

$$\lambda |\psi\rangle = U_X |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i \neq 0,1} (\alpha_{i \oplus 1} |i\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + \beta_i |i \oplus 1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle). \quad (18)$$

Comparing Eqs. (17) and (18), we derive further that

$$\alpha_i + \beta_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i = 0, 1; \\ \sqrt{2}\alpha_{i \oplus 1}/\lambda, & \text{if } i \neq 0, 1 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

and

$$\alpha_i - \beta_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i = 1, 2; \\ \sqrt{2}\beta_{i \oplus 1}/\lambda, & \text{if } i \neq 1, 2. \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

On the other hand, since  $|\lambda| = 1$ , we know from Eq. (18) that

$$\sum_{i \neq 0,1} (|\alpha_{i \oplus 1}|^2 + |\beta_i|^2) = \|\lambda |\psi\rangle\|^2 = 1. \quad (21)$$

So we have:

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \beta_0 = \beta_1 = 0. \quad (22)$$

Taking Eq. (22) back into Eqs. (19) and (20) we can deduce that  $\alpha_i = \beta_i = 0$  for any  $i$ . This is a contradiction.

To conclude this section, we observe some further properties of almost terminating quantum loops. The following theorem indicates that the notion of uniformly almost terminating loop coincides with almost terminating loop.

**Theorem 5.2** The quantum loop (1) is almost terminating if and only if it is uniformly almost terminating.

*Proof.* If loop (1) is almost terminating, then we have  $|\lambda_i| < 1$  for any  $i = 1, \dots, l$  from Corollary 5.2. Let  $U_X = SJ(U_X)S^{-1}$  be the Jordan decomposition of  $U_X$ . Then from Eq. (3) we have:

$$p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) = \|SJ(U_X)^{n-1}S^{-1}\rho_X^{1/2}\|^2.$$

By using the properties of matrix norm, we derive that

$$\begin{aligned} p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) &\leq (\|S\| \cdot \|S^{-1}\| \cdot \|\rho_X^{1/2}\|)^2 \|J(U_X)\|^{2(n-1)} \\ &\leq (\|S\| \cdot \|S^{-1}\|)^2 \|J(U_X)\|^{2(n-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\text{spec}(J(U_X)) \in [0, 1)$ , from Eq. (8) we can check easily that  $\|J(U_X)\|^n \rightarrow 0$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . So for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can take  $n(\epsilon)$  large enough such that

$$\|J(U_X)\|^{2(n(\epsilon)-1)} < \frac{\epsilon}{(\|S\| \cdot \|S^{-1}\|)^2}$$

Then we have  $p_{NT}^{n+}(\rho) < \epsilon$  for all  $\rho$  whenever  $n \geq n(\epsilon)$ . Thus loop (1) is uniformly almost terminating.  $\square$

The next two theorems show that the notion of almost terminating loop is sensitive. More explicitly, a small disturbance either on the unitary transformation in the loop body or on the measurement in the loop guard can make any quantum loop almost terminating.

We first need to prove a technical lemma.

**Lemma 5.3** *Suppose  $|i\rangle$  is an eigenvector of  $U_X$  and its corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  has unit norm. Then:*

1.  $|i\rangle \in H_X$ , and it is also an eigenvector of  $U$  with an eigenvalue of unit norm;
2.  $P_{\bar{X}}U|i\rangle = 0$ .

*Proof.* Assume that  $U_X|i\rangle = \lambda|i\rangle$  and  $|\lambda| = 1$ . First, we see that  $\lambda P_X|i\rangle = P_X U_X|i\rangle = U_X|i\rangle = \lambda|i\rangle$ . Thus,  $P_X|i\rangle = |i\rangle$  and  $|i\rangle \in H_X$ . Furthermore, by the Gram-Schmidt procedure we can find an orthonormal basis  $\{|j\rangle\}$  for  $H$  which contains  $|i\rangle$ . We assume that  $U|i\rangle = \sum_j \mu_j |j\rangle$  and  $\sum_j |\mu_j|^2 = 1$ . Then it holds that  $|\mu_i| = |\langle i|U|i\rangle| = |\langle i|P_X U P_X|i\rangle| = |\lambda| = 1$ . This implies that  $\mu_j = 0$  for all  $j \neq i$ , and  $U|i\rangle = \mu_i|i\rangle$ . Finally,  $P_{\bar{X}}U|i\rangle = \mu_i P_{\bar{X}}|i\rangle = 0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 5.3** *For any  $M$ ,  $X \neq \text{spec}(M)$  and  $U$  in loop (1), and for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a unitary operator  $U'$  such that  $\|U - U'\| < \epsilon$  and the following loop is almost terminating:*

$$\text{while } (M \in X) \{ \bar{q} := U' \bar{q} \}.$$

*Proof.* By using Corollary 5.2, we only need to find a unitary operator  $U'$  such that  $\|U - U'\| < \epsilon$  and all eigenvalues of  $P_X U' P_X$  have norms less than 1. On the other hand, Lemma 5.3 implies that a necessary condition for  $P_X U' P_X$  to have an eigenvalue with unit norm is that  $U'$  has an eigenvector lying in the space  $H_X$ . Here  $H_X$  is the subspace with projector  $P_X$ . So we need only to show that we can take  $U'$  such that  $\|U - U'\| < \epsilon$  and at the same time none of the eigenvectors of  $U'$  lies in  $H_X$ . To achieve this, we first write out the spectrum decomposition of  $U$  as  $U = \sum_i \mu_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ . If each  $|\psi_i\rangle \notin H_X$  then we have done. Otherwise suppose  $|\psi_{i_0}\rangle \in H_X$  for some  $i_0$ . From  $X \neq \text{spec}(M)$  there exists  $j_0$  such that  $|\psi_{j_0}\rangle \notin H_X$ . Let

$$|\psi'_{i_0}\rangle = \sqrt{1-\delta}|\psi_{i_0}\rangle + \sqrt{\delta}|\psi_{j_0}\rangle, \quad (23)$$



$$|\psi'_{j_0}\rangle = \sqrt{1-\delta}|\psi_{j_0}\rangle - \sqrt{\delta}|\psi_{i_0}\rangle, \quad (24)$$

and  $|\psi'_i\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle$  for  $i \neq i_0, j_0$ . Here  $\delta$  is a very small but positive real number which will be determined later. It is obvious that the set  $|\psi'_i\rangle$  are also orthonormal, and  $|\psi'_{i_0}\rangle, |\psi'_{j_0}\rangle \notin H_X$ . Let  $U_1 = \sum_i \mu_i |\psi'_i\rangle\langle\psi'_i|$ . Then the number of eigenvectors of  $U_1$  which lie in  $H_X$  is strictly less than that of  $U$ . Repeating the above steps we can finally find a sequence of unitary matrices  $U = U_0, U_1, \dots, U_d$ ,  $d \leq K = \dim(H)$ , such that all the eigenvectors of  $U_d$  does not lie in  $H_X$ . Take  $U' = U_d$  and notice that we can take  $\delta$  small enough at each step such that  $\|U_i - U_{i+1}\| < \epsilon/K$ . It then follows that  $\|U - U'\| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \|U_i - U_{i+1}\| < \epsilon$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 5.4** *For any  $M$ ,  $X \neq \text{spec}(M)$  and  $U$  in loop (1), and for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an observable  $M'$  with  $\text{spec}(M') = \text{spec}(M)$  such that  $\|M' - M\| < \epsilon$  and the following loop is almost terminating:*

$$\text{while } (M' \in X) \{ \bar{q} := U\bar{q} \}$$

*Proof.* Similar to the proof of Theorem 5.3, it suffices to find  $M'$  such that  $\text{spec}(M') = \text{spec}(M)$ ,  $\|M - M'\| < \epsilon$ , and none of the eigenvectors of  $U$  lies in  $H'_X$ , where  $H'_X$  is the eigenspace of  $M'$  with eigenvalues in  $X$ . Let  $\{|m_i\rangle\}_{i=1}^K$  be an orthonormal basis of  $H$  such that  $P_X = \sum_{i=1}^k |m_i\rangle\langle m_i|$ . Since  $X \neq \text{spec}(M)$ , we have  $1 \leq k < K$ .

Let  $U = \sum_j \mu_j |\psi_j\rangle\langle\psi_j|$  be the spectrum decomposition of  $U$ . If all  $|\psi_j\rangle \notin H_X$  then we have done. Otherwise assume  $|\psi_{j_0}\rangle \in H_X$ . Then there exists  $i_0 \leq k$  such that  $\langle m_{i_0} | \psi_{j_0} \rangle \neq 0$ . We take some  $k+1 \leq i_1 \leq K$  and put

$$|m_{i_0}^1\rangle = \sqrt{1-\delta}|m_{i_0}\rangle + \sqrt{\delta}|m_{i_1}\rangle, \quad (25)$$

$$|m_{i_1}^1\rangle = \sqrt{1-\delta}|m_{i_1}\rangle - \sqrt{\delta}|m_{i_0}\rangle, \quad (26)$$

where it is required that  $0 < \delta < 1$ , and  $|m_i^1\rangle = |m_i\rangle$  for  $i \neq i_0, i_1$ . It is easy to check that the set  $\{|m_i^1\rangle\}_{i=1}^K$  is also an orthonormal basis of  $H$ . We write  $P_X^1 = \sum_{i=1}^k |m_i^1\rangle\langle m_i^1|$ . Let  $H_X^1$  be the subspace of  $H$  with projector  $P_X^1$ . Then  $|\psi_{j_0}\rangle \notin H_X^1$  because  $\langle m_{i_1}^1 | \psi_{j_0} \rangle = -\sqrt{\delta}\langle m_{i_0} | \psi_{j_0} \rangle \neq 0$ . Furthermore, we can choose  $\delta$  carefully such that the eigenvectors of  $U$  in  $H_X^1$  is strictly less than that in  $H_X$ . Indeed, if  $|\psi_j\rangle \notin H_X$  but  $|\psi_j\rangle \in H_X^1$  then it must hold that

$$0 = \langle m_{i_1}^1 | \psi_j \rangle = \sqrt{1-\delta}\langle m_{i_1} | \psi_j \rangle - \sqrt{\delta}\langle m_{i_0} | \psi_j \rangle. \quad (27)$$

Thus, there are only finitely many  $\delta$  which does not meet our requirement.

Repeating the above steps we can finally find a sequence of orthonormal bases  $\{|m_i^l\rangle, i = 1, \dots, K\}_{l=0}^d$  with  $d \leq K$  such that  $|m_i^0\rangle = |m_i\rangle$  for each  $i \leq K$ , and all the eigenvectors of  $U$  do not lie in  $H_X^d$ , the subspace of  $H$  with projector  $P_X^d = \sum_{i=1}^k |m_i^d\rangle\langle m_i^d|$ . Let

$$P'_m = \sum_{P_m|m_i\rangle=|m_i\rangle} |m_i^d\rangle\langle m_i^d|, \quad M' = \sum_{m \in \text{spec}(M)} m P'_m.$$

Notice that we can take  $\delta$  small enough at each step such that

$$\max\{\|P_X^i - P_X^{i+1}\|, \|P_X^i - P_X^{i+1}\|\} < \frac{\epsilon}{K \cdot \sum_m |m|}.$$

It then follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|M - M'\| &\leq \sum_m |m| \cdot \|P_m - P'_m\| \\
&\leq \sum_m |m| \left( \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \|P_m^i - P_m^{i+1}\| \right) \\
&< \sum_m |m| \left( \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \frac{\epsilon}{K \cdot \sum_m |m|} \right) < \epsilon.
\end{aligned}$$

□

## 6 The Function Computed by a Quantum Loop

In this section, we are going to give a representation of the function computed by the loop (1). First of all, we consider the simple case that  $U_X$  is normal.

**Theorem 6.1** *Suppose  $U_X$  is normal and its spectrum decomposition is given by Eq. (11). Then the function computed by loop (1) is as follows:*

$$F(\rho) = P_{\overline{X}} \rho P_{\overline{X}} + \sum_{i,j \in I} \frac{\langle i | \rho | j \rangle}{1 - \lambda_i \lambda_j^*} P_{\overline{X}} U |i\rangle \langle j| U^\dagger P_{\overline{X}}$$

where  $I \equiv \{i \mid 1 \leq i \leq k, |\lambda_i| < 1\}$ .

*Proof.* For any  $n \geq 0$ , we have from Eq. (11) that

$$P_{\overline{X}} U U_X^n = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i^n P_{\overline{X}} U |i\rangle \langle i| = \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i^n P_{\overline{X}} U |i\rangle \langle i|$$

where the second equality is due to Lemma 5.3.2. Taking this equation into Eq. (4) we have:

$$F(\rho) = P_{\overline{X}} \rho P_{\overline{X}} + \sum_{i,j \in I} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_i^n \lambda_j^{*n} \right) \langle i | \rho_X | j \rangle P_{\overline{X}} U |i\rangle \langle j| U^\dagger P_{\overline{X}}.$$

Then the result follows by using Lemma 5.3.1. □

We now turn to consider the general case where  $U_X$  is not necessary to be normal. To this end, the following lemmas are needed.

**Lemma 6.1** *(Schur's unitary triangularization; [7]) Given  $(k \times k)$ -complex matrix  $A$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  in any prescribed order, there exists a  $(k \times k)$  unitary matrix  $V$  such that  $A = V T V^\dagger$ , where  $T$  is upper triangular with diagonal entries  $T_{ii} = \lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, k$ .*

**Lemma 6.2** *Let  $U_X = V T V^\dagger$  be the Schur's triangularization of  $U_X$ . Then for any  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , if  $|T_{ii}| = 1$  then  $T_{ij} = T_{ji} = 0$  for all  $j \neq i$ .*

*Proof.* To prove this lemma, we need only to notice  $T^\dagger T = V^\dagger U_X^\dagger U_X V \leq I$ , and so for any  $i$ , the Euclidean norms of the  $i$ -th row and the  $i$ -th column of  $T$  must be less than or equal to 1. □

**Lemma 6.3** For each Jordan block  $J_r(\lambda)$  in the Jordan normal form of  $U_X$ , if  $|\lambda| = 1$ , then  $r = 1$ . That is, each Jordan block corresponding to unit norm eigenvalues has size 1.

*Proof.* Suppose  $U_X = VTV^\dagger$  is the Schur's triangularization of  $U_X$ , and the diagonal entries of  $T$  have been arranged in decreasing order of their norms, i.e.,  $1 = |T_{11}| = \dots = |T_{tt}| > |T_{t+1,t+1}| \geq \dots \geq |T_{kk}|$  for some  $t$ . Then from Lemma 6.2,  $T$  must have the form

$$T = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} T_{11} & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & T_{tt} & & & \\ \hline & & & & & T' \end{array} \right)$$

where  $T'$  is  $(k-t) \times (k-t)$ -dimensional and none of its eigenvalues has unit norm. Let  $T' = S'J(T')S'^{-1}$  be the Jordan decomposition of  $T'$ , and let

$$S = V \left( \begin{array}{c|c} I_t & \\ \hline & S' \end{array} \right), J = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} T_{11} & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & T_{tt} & & & \\ \hline & & & & & J(T') \end{array} \right)$$

It is easy to check that  $SJS^{-1}$  is the Jordan decomposition of  $U_X$ . Then the result holds from the uniqueness of Jordan normal form in the sense presented in Lemma 4.4.  $\square$

**Lemma 6.4** Let  $J_r(\lambda)$  be a  $(r \times r)$ -Jordan block,  $|\lambda| < 1$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r)^T \in \mathbf{C}^r$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_r(\lambda)^n \mathbf{v} &= \left( \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} f_i(\lambda) v_{i+1}, \sum_{i=0}^{r-2} f_i(\lambda) v_{i+2}, \dots, \right. \\ &\quad \left. f_0(\lambda) v_{r-1} + f_1(\lambda) v_r, f_0(\lambda) v_r \right)^T, \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

where

$$f_i(x) = \frac{d^i(1-x)^{-1}}{i! dx^i}.$$

*Proof.* For any  $1 \leq m \leq r$ , we can see from Eqs. (8) and (9) that the  $m$ -component of vector  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_r(\lambda)^n \mathbf{v}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_r(\lambda)^n \mathbf{v} \right)_m &= \sum_{i=0}^{r-m} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{i} \lambda^{n-i} v_{i+m} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{r-m} \left( \frac{d^i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n}{i! dx^i} \Big|_{x=\lambda} \right) v_{i+m} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{r-m} f_i(\lambda) v_{i+m}. \end{aligned}$$

The convergence of the above series is guaranteed by the assumption that  $|\lambda| < 1$ .  $\square$

Now we are able to present the main result of this section.

**Theorem 6.2** Suppose that  $S$ ,  $J(U_X)$ ,  $J_{k_i}(\lambda_i)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq l$ ) are given as in Theorem 4.1. Without loss of generality, we assume that the Jordan blocks of  $J(U_X)$  have been arranged in the decreasing order of  $|\lambda_i|$ , i.e.  $1 = |\lambda_1| = \dots = |\lambda_t| > |\lambda_{t+1}| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_l|$ . Then the output  $F(|\psi\rangle)$  of the loop (1) with input  $|\psi\rangle$  is a  $(K - k)$ -dimensional vector lying in the subspace  $H_{\overline{X}}$ :

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = (|\psi\rangle + US\mathbf{u})_{\overline{X}}, \quad (29)$$

where  $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{u}_{t+1}^T, \dots, \mathbf{u}_l^T, \mathbf{0})^T$  is a  $K$ -dimensional vector. Here the former and the latter zero vectors have dimensions  $t$  and  $K - k$ , respectively, and for  $i = t + 1, \dots, l$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_{k_i}(\lambda_i)^n \mathbf{v}_i$  is given in Eq. (28).

*Proof.* Under the assumption of the theorem, we have  $k_1 = \dots = k_t = 1$  by using Lemma 6.3. Then for any  $i = 1, \dots, t$ ,

$$U_X S|m_i\rangle = S J(U_X)|m_i\rangle = \lambda_i S|m_i\rangle,$$

or in other words,  $S|m_i\rangle$  is an eigenvector of  $U_X$  with its corresponding eigenvalue having unit norm. So we have  $P_{\overline{X}} U_X S|m_i\rangle = 0$  from Lemma 5.3 2.

On the other hand, from Eq. (4) we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(|\psi\rangle) &= P_{\overline{X}}|\psi\rangle + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{\overline{X}} U U_X^n |\psi\rangle_X \\ &= P_{\overline{X}}|\psi\rangle + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{\overline{X}} U S J(U_X)^n S^{-1} |\psi\rangle_X \\ &= P_{\overline{X}}|\psi\rangle + P_{\overline{X}} U S \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J(U_X)^n \mathbf{v}'. \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

Here  $\mathbf{v}' = (\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}_{t+1}^T, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l^T)^T$  and the zero vector  $\mathbf{0}$  has dimension  $t$ . Then the result holds by using Lemma 6.4 and rewriting Eq. (30) into vector form.  $\square$

Although we only consider pure input states in Theorems 6.1 and 6.2, they may be used to calculate the outputted state  $F(\rho)$  of loop (1) for any mixed input state  $\rho$  by noting that  $F(\rho) = \sum_i p_i F(|\psi_i\rangle)$ , where  $\rho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$  is the spectrum decomposition of  $\rho$ .

## 7 Some Illustrative Examples

To illustrate further the notions introduced and the results obtained in this paper, we consider two simplest classes of quantum loops.

### 7.1 Single qubit loops

Let  $M$  be an observable in the 2-dimensional Hilbert space  $H_2$ . Then we have  $M = m_1|m_1\rangle\langle m_1| + m_2|m_2\rangle\langle m_2|$ , where  $m_1, m_2$  are the eigenvalues of  $M$ , and  $|m_i\rangle$  is the eigenvector of  $M$  corresponding to  $m_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ). A single qubit loop can be written as follows:

$$\text{while } (M = m_i) \{q := Uq\}, \quad (31)$$

where  $U$  is a unitary operation on a single qubit, and  $i = 1, 2$ . Without any loss of generality we may assume that  $m_1 \neq m_2$  and  $i = 1$ .

Note that the function  $F$  defined by the loop (31) is from  $\mathcal{D}(H_2)$  to  $\mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|m_2\rangle\})$ . Since  $\text{span}\{|m_2\rangle\}$  is the one-dimensional Hilbert space,  $\mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|m_2\rangle\})$  can be identified with the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ . Thus, the function  $F$  computed by the loop (31) is a mapping from  $\mathcal{D}(H_2)$  into  $[0, 1]$ . A simple application of Theorems 4.1, 5.1 and 6.2 leads to the following:

**Lemma 7.1** *Let  $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H_2)$  be the input state to the single qubit loop program (31). Then:*

1. *if  $\langle m_1 | \rho | m_1 \rangle = 0$  or  $\langle m_1 | U | m_1 \rangle = 0$ , then the loop (31) terminates, and  $F(\rho) = 1$ ;*
2. *if  $|\langle m_1 | U | m_1 \rangle| < 1$ , then the loop (31) almost terminates, and  $F(\rho) = 1$ ;*
3. *if  $\langle m_1 | \rho | m_1 \rangle > 0$  and  $|\langle m_1 | U | m_1 \rangle| = 1$ , then the loop (31) does not terminate, and  $F(\rho) = \langle m_2 | \rho | m_2 \rangle$ .*

Now we further consider the special case that the input is a pure state. To this end, we shall need the following:

**Lemma 7.2** ([3, 20]) *Each unitary operation on a single qubit can be written in the form of  $U = e^{i\alpha} R_z(\beta) R_y(\gamma) R_z(\delta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  and  $\delta$  are real numbers,*

$$R_y(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -\sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$R_z(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{i\theta}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\frac{i\theta}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

are the rotation operators about  $y$  and  $z$  axes, respectively.

To simplify the presentation, we further suppose that the measurement is performed on the computational basis. Combining Lemmas 7.1 and 7.2 we obtain:

**Proposition 7.1** *Suppose that  $|\psi\rangle = a_0|0\rangle + a_1|1\rangle$  is the input to the single qubit loop program:*

$$\textbf{while } (q = 0) \{ q := Uq \}, \tag{32}$$

*where the loop condition  $(q = 0)$  means that the outcome of a measurement on the computational basis  $|0\rangle, |1\rangle$  is 0, and the unitary operator  $U$  is given as in Lemma 7.2. Then*

1. *if  $a_0 = 0$  or  $\gamma = (2n + 1)\pi$  for some integer  $n$ , then the loop (32) terminates;*
2. *if  $a_0 \neq 0$  and  $\gamma = 2n\pi$  for some integer  $n$ , then the loop (32) does not terminate;*
3. *if  $\gamma \neq n\pi$  for any integer  $n$ , then the loop (32) almost terminates.*

*A similar conclusion holds if the guard condition  $(q = 0)$  in the loop (32) is replaced by  $(q = 1)$ , which means that the result 1 occurs when performing a measurement on the computational basis  $|0\rangle, |1\rangle$ .*

It is interesting to note from the above proposition that termination of the loop (32) depends only upon the parameter  $\gamma$ , and it is irrelevant to the other parameters  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\delta$ . Moreover, we see that the loop (32) is terminating if  $\gamma = (2n + 1)\pi$  for some integer  $n$ , and it is (uniformly) almost terminating if  $\gamma \neq n\pi$  for any integer  $n$ .

From Lemma 7.1, it is easy to see that in Proposition 7.1 for the cases 1 and 2, we have  $F(|\psi\rangle) = 1$ , and for the case 3,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = |a_1|^2$ .

The most frequently used single qubit gates are the four Pauli matrices:

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

the Hadamard gate:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

the phase gate:

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix},$$

and the  $\frac{\pi}{8}$  gate:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \exp(\frac{i\pi}{4}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Applying Proposition 7.1 to these gates, we obtain:

**Corollary 7.1** *For a single qubit input state  $|\psi\rangle = a_0|0\rangle + a_1|1\rangle$ , the loop (32) always terminates when  $U = X$  or  $Y$ , it almost terminates when  $U = H$ , and it does not terminate when  $U = I, Z, S$  or  $T$  provided  $a_0 \neq 0$ .*

## 7.2 Two qubit loops defined by controlled operations

As the second example we consider a typical class of two qubit gates, namely, controlled operations. Suppose that  $U$  is a single qubit unitary operation. Then the controlled- $U$  gate is defined by the following  $4 \times 4$  matrix:

$$C(U) = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & U \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $I$  is the  $2 \times 2$  unit matrix. For a two qubit system, the measurement  $M$  on the computational basis  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle$  and  $|11\rangle$  has four possible outcomes 00, 01, 10 and 11, where we use  $i_1 i_2$  to indicate the measurement result  $q_1 = i_1$  and  $q_2 = i_2$  for any  $i_1, i_2 \in \{0, 1\}$ . Thus, the two qubit quantum loop defined by controlled operation  $C(U)$  may be written as follows:

$$\textbf{while } (M \in X) \{q_1, q_2 := C(U)q_1, q_2\}, \quad (33)$$

where  $X \subseteq \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$ .

The following proposition carefully examines the behavior of this loop for various choices of  $X$  except the trivial cases  $X = \emptyset$  or  $X = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$ .

**Proposition 7.2** *Let pure state  $|\psi\rangle = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$  be the input of the loop program (33). Suppose that  $U = (U_{ij})_{i,j=0}^1$  is the matrix representation of  $U$  according to the basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , that is,  $U_{ij} = \langle i|U|j\rangle$  for any  $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$ .*

1. If  $X = \{00\}$ , then  $p_{NT} = |a_{00}|^2$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ , the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{00} = 0$ , and it does not terminate if  $a_{00} \neq 0$ .
2. If  $X = \{01\}$ , then  $p_{NT} = |a_{01}|^2$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ , the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{01} = 0$ , and it does not terminate if  $a_{01} \neq 0$ .
3. Let  $X = \{10\}$ . If  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $U_{00} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates. If  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $|U_{00}| < 1$ , then it almost terminates, and

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{00}|^2 & a_{00}a_{01}^* & a_{00}a_{11}^* \\ a_{01}a_{00}^* & |a_{01}|^2 & a_{01}a_{11}^* \\ a_{11}a_{00}^* & a_{11}a_{01}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \in \mathcal{D}(\text{span}\{|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |11\rangle\}).$$

If  $a_{10} \neq 0$  and  $U_{00} = 1$ , then it does not terminate, and  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ .

4. Let  $X = \{11\}$ . If  $a_{11} = 0$  or  $U_{11} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates. If  $a_{11} = 0$  or  $|U_{11}| < 1$ , then it almost terminates, and

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{00}|^2 & a_{00}a_{01}^* & a_{00}a_{10}^* \\ a_{01}a_{00}^* & |a_{01}|^2 & a_{01}a_{10}^* \\ a_{10}a_{00}^* & a_{10}a_{01}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \in \mathcal{D}(\text{span}\{|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle\}).$$

If  $a_{11} \neq 0$  and  $U_{11} = 1$ , then it does not terminate, and  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle$ .

5. If  $X = \{00, 01\}$ , then  $p_{NT} = |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{01}|^2$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ , the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , and it does not terminate if  $a_{00} \neq 0$  or  $a_{01} \neq 0$ .
6. If  $X = \{10, 11\}$ , then  $p_{NT} = |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle$ , the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{10} = a_{11} = 0$ , and it does not terminate if  $a_{10} \neq 0$  or  $a_{11} \neq 0$ .
7. Let  $X = \{00, 10\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{00}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| < 1, \\ |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{10}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

$F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|01\rangle, |11\rangle\})$  is given as follows: for the case of  $|U_{00}| = 1$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ , and for the case of  $|U_{00}| < 1$ ,

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{01}|^2 & a_{01}a_{11}^* \\ a_{11}a_{01}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $a_{00} = 0$ , and  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $U_{00} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{00} = 0$ , and  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $|U_{00}| < 1$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{00} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{10} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{00}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.

8. Let  $X = \{00, 11\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{00}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| < 1, \\ |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

$F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|01\rangle, |10\rangle\})$  is given as follows: for the case of  $|U_{11}| = 1$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle$ , and for the case of  $|U_{11}| < 1$ ,

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{01}|^2 & a_{01}a_{10}^* \\ a_{10}a_{01}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $a_{00} = 0$ , and  $a_{11} = 0$  or  $U_{11} = 0$ , the the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{00} = 0$  and  $|U_{11}| < 1$ , or  $a_{00} = 0$  and  $a_{11} = 0$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{00} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{11} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{11}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.

9. Let  $X = \{01, 10\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{01}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| < 1, \\ |a_{01}|^2 + |a_{10}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

$F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|00\rangle, |11\rangle\})$  is given as follows: for the case of  $|U_{00}| = 1$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle$ , and for the case of  $|U_{00}| < 1$ ,

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{00}|^2 & a_{00}a_{11}^* \\ a_{11}a_{00}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $a_{01} = 0$ , and  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $U_{00} = 0$ , the the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{01} = 0$ , and  $|U_{00}| < 1$  or  $a_{10} = 0$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{01} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{10} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{00}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.

10. Let  $X = \{01, 11\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{01}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| < 1, \\ |a_{01}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

$F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|00\rangle, |10\rangle\})$  is given as follows: for the case of  $|U_{11}| = 1$ ,  $F(|\psi\rangle) = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle$ , and for the case of  $|U_{11}| < 1$ ,

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{pmatrix} |a_{00}|^2 & a_{00}a_{10}^* \\ a_{10}a_{00}^* & |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $a_{01} = 0$ , and  $a_{11} = 0$  or  $U_{11} = 0$ , the the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{01} = 0$ , and  $|U_{11}| < 1$  or  $a_{11} = 0$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{01} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{11} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{11}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.

11. Let  $X = \{00, 01, 10\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{01}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| < 1, \\ |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{01}|^2 + |a_{10}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| = 1, \end{cases}$$

and  $F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|11\rangle\}) \cong [0, 1]$  is given by

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{cases} |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| < 1, \\ |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{00}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

If  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , and  $a_{10} = 0$  or  $U_{00} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , and  $|U_{00}| < 1$  or  $a_{10} = 0$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{00} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{01} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{10} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{00}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.



12. Let  $X = \{00, 01, 11\}$ . Then we have:

$$p_{NT} = \begin{cases} |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{01}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| < 1, \\ |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{01}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| = 1, \end{cases}$$

and  $F(|\psi\rangle) \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|10\rangle\}) \cong [0, 1]$  is given by

$$F(|\psi\rangle) = \begin{cases} |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| < 1, \\ |a_{10}|^2, & \text{if } |U_{11}| = 1. \end{cases}$$

If  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , and  $a_{11} = 0$  or  $U_{11} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates, if  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , and  $|U_{11}| < 1$  or  $a_{11} = 0$ , then it almost terminates, and if  $a_{00} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{01} \neq 0$ , or  $a_{11} \neq 0$  and  $|U_{11}| = 1$ , then it does not terminate.

13. Let  $X = \{00, 10, 11\}$ . Then  $p_{NT} = |a_{00}|^2 + |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2$  and  $F(|\psi\rangle) = |a_{01}|^2 \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|01\rangle\}) \cong [0, 1]$ . If  $a_{00} = a_{10} = a_{11} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates, otherwise it does not terminate.

14. Let  $X = \{01, 10, 11\}$ . Then  $p_{NT} = |a_{01}|^2 + |a_{10}|^2 + |a_{11}|^2$  and  $F(|\psi\rangle) = |a_{00}|^2 \in \mathcal{D}^-(\text{span}\{|00\rangle\}) \cong [0, 1]$ . If  $a_{01} = a_{10} = a_{11} = 0$ , then the loop (33) terminates, otherwise it does not terminate.

Note that termination of the loop (33) is irrelevant to the unitary operator  $U$ , and it only depends on the input state  $|\psi\rangle$  when  $X = \{00\}, \{01\}, \{00, 01\}, \{10, 11\}, \{00, 10, 11\}$  or  $\{01, 10, 11\}$ . For the other cases, termination of the loop defined by the CNOT gate is summarized in the following:

**Corollary 7.2** Suppose that  $C(U)$  is the CNOT gate  $C(X)$ , where  $X = \text{NOT}$  is the second Pauli gate.

1. Let  $X = \{10\}$  or  $\{11\}$ . Then the loop (33) always terminates.
2. Let  $X = \{00, 10\}$  or  $\{00, 11\}$ . Then the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{00} = 0$ , otherwise it does not terminate.
3. Let  $X = \{01, 10\}$  or  $\{01, 11\}$ . Then the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{01} = 0$ , otherwise it does not terminate.
4. Let  $X = \{00, 01, 10\}$  or  $\{00, 01, 11\}$ . Then the loop (33) terminates if  $a_{00} = a_{01} = 0$ , otherwise it does not terminate.

## 8 Conclusion

Exploitation of the full power of loop construct in quantum computation requires a deep understanding of the computational mechanism of quantum loop programs. In this paper, we introduced a general scheme of quantum loop programs, the behaviors of quantum loops are carefully analyzed, including termination, almost termination, and sensitivity, and a matrix-summation representation of the function computed by a quantum loop is found.

This paper is merely an initial step toward a thorough understanding of quantum loop programs, and many important problems remain open. First, the bodies of quantum loops that we considered are unitary transformations. If a quantum loop is allowed to be embedded into another quantum loop, then as was observed in Section 3, the body of the latter loop is not a unitary operator

but a super-operator in general. Therefore, it is an interesting topic for further studies to find conditions for termination and almost termination of quantum loops in which the loop bodies are super-operators. Second, we demonstrated the expressive power of quantum loops by presenting a loop description of quantum walks. It would be very interesting to find more computational problems that cannot be expressed or solved without quantum loops. In general, the study of loop programs is a very important area of computer programming methodology. Reconsideration of some fundamental problems from this area, say loop invariants and proof rules, in the quantum setting is a great challenge.

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